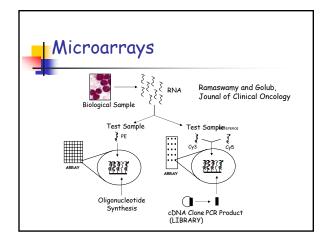
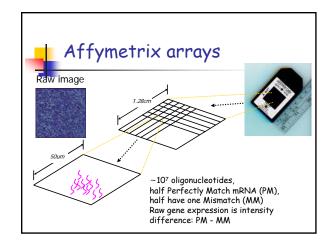


Devika Subramanian Comp 470



- Quick recap
 - Proteins: state of cell
 - Gene: codes for a protein
 - mRNA: helps assemble a protein
 - mRNA levels ~ gene exp. level ~ protein levels
- Microarrays measure the expression levels of thousands of genes at a time.
- Typical experiment: Measure expression of genes under different conditions and ask what is different at a molecular level and why.







Microarray applications

- Biological discovery
 - new and better molecular diagnostics
 - new molecular targets for therapy
 - finding and refining biological pathways
- Recent examples
 - molecular diagnosis of leukemia, breast cancer.
 - appropriate treatment for genetic signature
 - potential new drug targets



Two computational tasks

- Classifying gene expressions: this week
 - What can be learnt about a cell from the set of all mRNA expressed in a cell? Classifying diseases: does a patient have benign prostate cancer or metastatic prostate cancer?
- Inferring regulatory networks: next week
 - What is the "circuitry" of the cell? What are the genetic pathways of cancer?



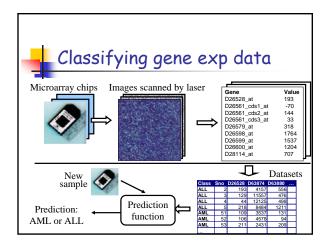
Common Approaches

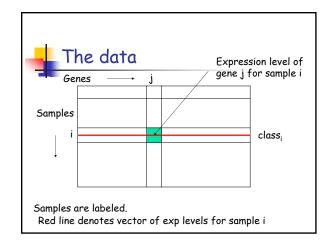
- Comparing two measurements at a time
 - Person 1, gene G: 1000 • Person 2, gene G: 3200
 - Greater than 3-fold change: flag this
- Comparing one measurement with a population of measurements... is it unlikely that the new measurement was drawn from same distribution?

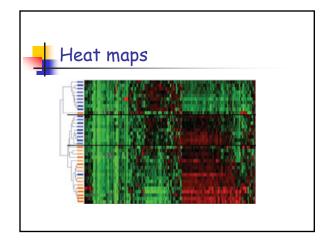


Classification

- Use our knowledge of class values, e.g., myeloma vs. normal etc., to gain added insight.
- Find genes that are best predictors of class.
 - Can provide useful tests, e.g. for choosing treatment.
 - If predictor is comprehensible, may provide novel insight, e.g., point to a new therapeutic target.





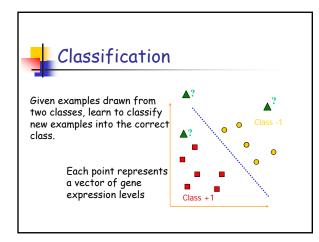




Challenges

- Microarray data inherit large experimental and biological variances
 - experimental bias + tissue heterogeneity
 - cross-hybridisation
 - 'bad design': confounding effects
- Microarray data are sparse

 - high-dimensionality of genes low number of samples/arrays
 - Curse of dimensionality
- Microarray data are highly redundant
 - Many genes are co-expressed, thus their expression is strongly correlated.





The classification problem

- Given training data $\{(x_1,y_1),...,(x_m,y_m)\}$, x_i in \mathbb{R}^n , y_i in $\{+1,-1\}$.
- Estimate function h:Rⁿ → {+1,-1} such that h will correctly classify new unseen examples from the same underlying probability distribution as the training data.



Classification as optimization

- Set S of training data points
- Class H of hypotheses/models
- Optimization problem: Find the hypothesis/model h in H that best fits all data.



Hypothesis Space



Objective function

 Minimizing training set error does not imply minimizing true error!

$$R_{train}[h] = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{2} [h(x_i) - y_i]^2$$
 Empirical risk

$$R[h] = \int \frac{1}{2} [h(x_i) - y_i]^2 dP(x, y) \quad \text{True error}$$



Statistical machine learning theory

- Non-asymptotic theory, based on finite samples which bounds true error in terms of training set error.
- Gives tradeoff between complexity of model and amount of data needed to learn it.



A bound on true error

 VC dimension theory allows us to relate train and test error for particular function classes. The key intuition is that the error of a function is not an absolute, but relative to the class of functions it is drawn from.

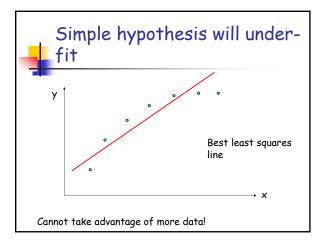
arawn from.
$$R[h] \leq R_{train}[h] + \sqrt{\frac{VC(h)(\log 2m/VC(h) + 1) - \log(\delta/4)}{m}}$$

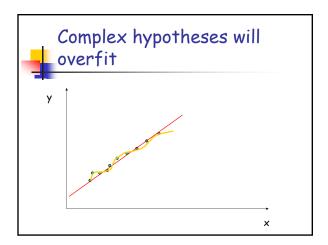
VC(h) is the VC dimension of the class from which h is drawn and delta is the probability bound, m is the size of the training set (Vapnik, 1995).



Tradeoffs

- With only a small amount of data, we can only discriminate between a small number of different hypotheses.
- As we get more data, we have more evidence, so we can consider more alternative hypotheses.
- Complex hypotheses give better fit to the data.







Adaptive hypothesis space selection

 Find hypothesis h to minimize error(h) + λ complexity(h)

Regularization



Support vector machines

- A new generation of learning algorithms based on
 - Non-linear optimization
 - Statistics
 - Functional analysis
- Come with theoretical guarantees on performance, because the learning problem can be reduced to convex optimization.



Applications

- SVMs have been used in a wide variety of tasks and are reputed to be the best for
 - Text categorization
 - Handwriting recognition
 - Classification of gene expression data



History

- Introduced in 1992 by Boser, Guyon and Vapnik (COLT 1992).
- Very rapid growth since then. 2 excellent textbooks and lots of new work both in theory and applications.
- www.kernel-machines.org is a great resource for learning about SVMs.



The Problem

- Given training data {(x₁,y₁),...,(x_m,y_m)},
 x_i in Rⁿ, y_i in {+1,-1}.
- Estimate function h:Rⁿ → {+1,-1} such that h will correctly classify new unseen examples from the same underlying probability distribution as the training data.



Linear support vector machines

- Consider the class of oriented hyperplanes in R^{n.}
 - h(x) = sign(w.x + b)
- If data is linearly separable, then there is a function from this class that separates the +1 points from the -1 points.

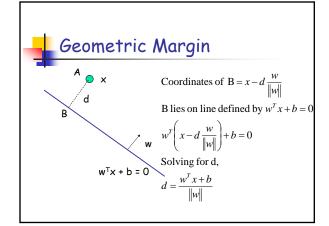
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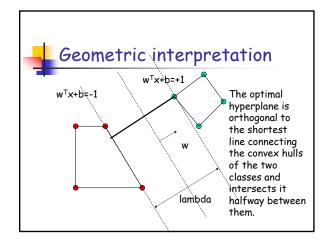


Linear separating hyperplanes

 Unfortunately, there are an infinite number of linear hyperplanes that separate the data!









Margin maximization

 Let x⁺ and x⁻ be the two points on the convex hulls of the positive and negative data which are closest to the maximal margin hyperplane.

1.
$$w^T x^+ + b = +1$$

2.
$$w^T x^- + b = -1$$

Lambda is the margin width, It is inversely proportional to w.w. So to maximize margin, we minimize w.

3.
$$x^+ = x^- + \lambda \frac{w}{\|w\|}$$

$$w^{T}(x^{+}-x^{-})=2$$
, from 1. and 2.

$$\lambda = \frac{2}{\parallel \mathbf{w} \parallel}$$
, from 3 and above.



Optimal separating hyperplane

- Among all separating hyperplanes, there is one with the maximum margin.
- A hyperplane separating data (x₁,y₁),...,(x_m,y_m) satisfies

•
$$(w.x_i) + b >= 1 \text{ if } y_i = +1$$

•
$$(w.x_i) + b <= -1 \text{ if } y_i = -1$$

•
$$y_i[(w.x_i)+b] >= 1$$
, for $i = 1..m$

 The optimal hyperplane satisfies the above conditions and has the minimal norm ||w||²=w.w



Learning the maximum margin classifier

Find w and b that minimize

$$\tau(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

subject to

$$y_i(w^T x_i + b) \ge 1$$
, for $i = 1..m$

Quadratic programming!



Solving the quadratic program

$$L(w,b,\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 - \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i (y_i(w^T x_i + b) - 1)$$

L must be minimized with respect to w and b and maximized with respect to the Lagrange multipliers alpha;

The first derivative with respect to w and b must vanish at the saddle point.



Solving the quadratic program

$$\frac{\partial L(w,b,\alpha)}{\partial w} = 0 \text{ which yields } \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i x_i = w$$

This means w has an expansion in terms of a subset of the training data, namely those (x_i,y_i) for which alpha; > 0. These data points are called support vectors. None of the other data points matter. The maximal margin hyperplane is completely determined by the support vectors.



Solving the quadratic program

$$\frac{\partial L(w,b,\alpha)}{\partial b} = 0 \text{ which yields } \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

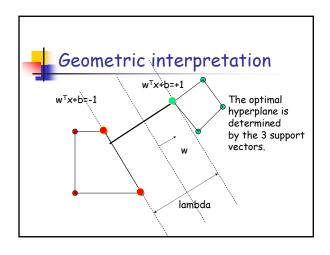
$$\alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1..m$$

$$y_i(w^T x_i + b) - 1 \ge 0, i = 1..m$$

By the KKT complementarity condition,

$$\alpha_i(y_i(w^Tx_i+b)-1)=0, i=1..m$$

Support vectors lie on the margin, because when alpha_i > 0, then $y_i((w.x_i + b) - 1) = 0$.

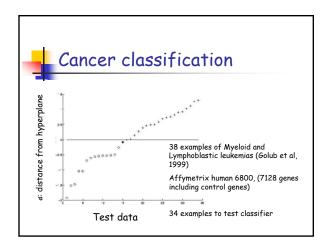


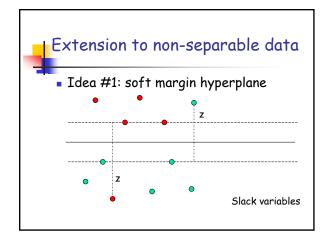


$$h(x) = sign(w^{T}x + b)$$
$$= sign\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_{i}\alpha_{i}(x^{T}x_{i}) + b)\right)$$

The hyperplane decision function uses the support vectors alone, and takes the dot product of the support vectors with x.

Note: b is calculated from the KKT comp. condn.







Soft margin hyperplanes

Minimize
$$\frac{1}{2} \| w \|^2 + c \sum_{i} \xi_i^{\delta}, \delta \ge 0$$

subject to

$$y_i(w^T x_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i, \xi_i \ge 0$$

For delta = 1, this is a convex optimization problem. We can set up the Lagragian and solve for w, b and zsi using the KKT conditions.



$$\begin{split} L(w,b,\alpha,\xi) &= \frac{1}{2} \|w\|^2 + c \sum_{i=1}^{m} \xi_i \\ &- \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i (y_i (w.x_i + b) - 1 + \xi_i) \\ &- \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mu_i \xi_i \end{split}$$



The KKT conditions

$$\frac{\partial L(w,b,\alpha,\xi)}{\partial w} = 0 \text{ which yields } w = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial L(w,b,\alpha,\xi)}{\partial b} = 0 \text{ which yields } \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L(w,b,\alpha,\xi)}{\partial \xi_i} = 0 \text{ which yields } c - \alpha_i - \mu_i = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial L(w, b, \alpha, \xi)}{\partial \alpha_i} = 0 \text{ which yields } y_i(w^T x_i + b) - 1 + \xi_i \ge 0$$

KKT comp. condn. $\alpha_i(y_i(w^Tx_i+b)-1+\xi_i)=0$



The solution

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i x_i$$

From the KKT complementarity condition, we get support vectors are the training data points for which

$$y_i(w.x_i + b) - 1 + \xi_i = 0$$

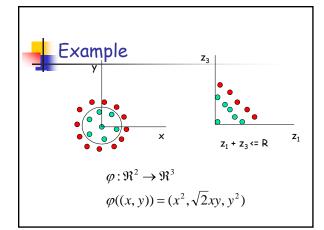
$$y_i(w.x_i + b) = 1 - \xi_i$$

That is, support vectors lie on the margin!



Non-linear support vector machines

- A generalization to handle the case when the decision function f is known to be not a linear function of the input x.
- Central idea: feature spaces. Map the x onto a higher dimensional feature space phi(x). Then, use linear support vector machines to obtain the optimal separating hyperplane in this high dimensional feature space.





Direct mapping

- Direct mapping to a high dimensional space suffers from the curse of dimensionality. To consider all dth order products of an n-dimensional vector, we have to consider
 - (n+d-1)!/(d!(n-1)!) terms
- For n = 16x16, d = 5, we have a 10¹⁰ dimensional feature space.



A closer look at decision fn

Note that decision function is of the form

$$h(x) = sign(w^T x + b)$$

$$= sign\left(\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i}(x^{T} x_{i}) + b\right)$$

 We only use dot products of the input vectors for determining the optimal separating hyperplane.



Kernels to the rescue

- If we want to find a separating hyperplane in the feature space, we need to compute the dot product of phi(x) and phi(x_i).
- Define a kernel function K which returns the dot product of the images of its two arguments

$$K(x_1, x_2) = \varphi(x_1)^T \varphi(x_2)$$



Non-linear support vector machines

• The decision function is of the form

$$h(x) = sign(w^{T}\phi(x) + b)$$
$$= sign\left(\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i}(K(x, x_{i})) + b\right)$$

 We only use dot products of the input vectors for determining the optimal separating hyperplane.



Examples of kernels

Polynomial kernel

$$K(x, y) = (x^T y)^d$$

Second degree polynomial kernel

$$\phi((x_1, x_2)) = (x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2)$$

$$\phi((y_1, y_2)) = (y_1^2, \sqrt{2}y_1y_2, y_2^2)$$

$$K(x, y) = \phi(x)^T \phi(y) = (x_1^2 y_1^2, 2x_1x_2y_1y_2, x_2^2 y_2^2)$$

$$= (x_1y_1 + x_2y_2)^2 = ((x_1, x_2)^T (y_1, y_2))^2 = (x^T y)^2$$

• Generalized polynomial kernel

$$K(x, y) = (x^T y + c)^d$$



More kernels

Exponential kernel (Gaussian RBF)

$$K(x, y) = e^{\frac{-\|x-y\|^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

Tanh kernel

$$K(x, y) = \tanh(kx^T y - \delta)$$



Wolfe dual form

Maximize
$$W(\alpha) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} y_{j} (x_{i}^{T} x_{j})$$

subject to $\alpha_i \ge 0$; i = 1..m

$$\sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0$$

Derived by substituting for w and b into L(w,b,alpha).

Advantage: maximization expressed in terms of dot products of the x's. Used for learning non-linear SVMs



Mercer condition

- Identifies the class of functions for which K(x,y) is the dot product of phi(x) and phi(y).
- See the excellent tutorial by C.
 Burges (available from www.kernel-machines.org) for a discussion of this condition.



General support vector machines

- We will substitute phi(x) for x in our previous formulation.
- Solutions are of the form:

$$h(x) = sign(w^{T}x + b)$$

$$= sign\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} y_{i} (\varphi(x_{i})^{T} \varphi(x) + b)\right)$$

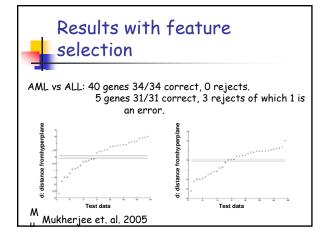
$$= sign\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_{i} y_{i} K(x_{i}, x) + b\right)$$





Feature selection

- SVMs as stated use all genes/features.
- Molecular biologists/oncologists seem to be convinced that only a small subset of genes are responsible for particular biological properties, so they want the "relevant" genes.





Two feature selection techniques

- Recursive feature elimination (RFE): based upon perturbation analysis, eliminate genes that perturb the margin the least.
- Optimize leave one out (LOO): based on the optimized leave-one-out error of an SVM.



- 1. Solve the SVM problem for vector \boldsymbol{w}
- 2. Rank order elements of vector \boldsymbol{w} by absolute value
- 3. Discard input features/genes corresponding to those vector elements with small absolute magnitude (for smallest 10%)
- 4. Retrain SVM on reduced gene set and goto step (2)



Leave one out estimator

- Leave one point out, train on the others, test on the left out point.
- Repeat this for every point in the training data.
- Leave-one-out estimate is almost unbiased.



Leave-one-out feature selection

 Use the LOO estimator as an objective function in the search for subsets of features.